A prospective study of medical conditions, anthropometry, physical activity, and pancreatic cancer in male smokers (Finland)

Rachael Z. Stolzenberg-Solomon^{1,2,*}, Pirjo Pietinen³, Philip R. Taylor⁴, Jarmo Virtamo³ & Demetrius Albanes¹ Nutritional Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Rockville, MD, USA; ²Division of Cancer Prevention, National Cancer Institute, Rockville, MD, USA; ³National Public Health Institute, Helsinki, Finland; ⁴Cancer Prevention Studies Branch, Center for Clinical Research, National Cancer Institute, Rockville, MD, USA

Received 21 June 2001; accepted in revised form 25 January 2002

Key words: anthropometry, medical conditions, metabolic syndrome, pancreatic cancer, physical activity, smokers.

Abstract

Objective: To examine the association between several medical conditions, anthropometric measurements, occupational and leisure physical activity, and pancreatic cancer in a cohort of male Finnish smokers.

Methods: We performed a cohort analysis of the 172 subjects who developed pancreatic cancer between 1985 and 1997 (median 10.2 years follow-up) among the 29,048 male smokers, 50–69 years old, who had complete baseline data and participated in the Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention (ATBC) Study. Cox proportional hazards models were used to estimate multivariable adjusted hazard ratios (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI).

Results: We observed positive associations between pancreatic cancer risk and self-reported history of diabetes mellitus (HR = 2.02, 95% CI 1.17–3.50) and bronchial asthma (HR = 2.16, 95% CI 1.17–3.98). Men having combined occupational and leisure activity greater than at sedentary levels had reduced risk for the cancer; for example those with moderate/heavy activity in both settings showed a HR of 0.42 (95% CI 0.22–0.83). There were no significant associations with other self-reported illnesses, total or HDL (high-density lipoprotein) cholesterol, height, weight, or body mass index.

Conclusions: Our data suggest that diabetes mellitus and bronchial asthma predict the subsequent risk of developing pancreatic cancer in male smokers, and that greater physical activity may reduce the risk.

Introduction

Although adenocarcinoma of the pancreas is a relatively uncommon cancer, it is a major source of cancer mortality, ranking fifth in the United States [1]. It is most often diagnosed at advanced stages, which contributes to its having among the lowest cancer survival rates [1]. Few risk factors have been identified, with cigarette smoke being the most consistent [1] and estimated to account for approximately 25% of the

incidence [2]. Several medical conditions have been associated with pancreatic cancer risk, with a positive association with diabetes mellitus being the best documented [3–5]. Both history of gallbladder disease (cholecystitis) and cholecystectomy have been associated with increased pancreatic cancer risk with the result for cholecystitis being more consistent than that for cholecystectomy [1]. There have also been less reliable findings for peptic ulcer disease being positively, and allergies inversely, associated with risk [1]. The metabolic syndrome associated with insulin resistance, characterized by hyperinsulinemia, low high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) levels, hypertension, and atherosclerosis, has been linked to obesity and lack of physical activity, and has paralleled the incidence of

^{*} Address correspondence to: Rachael Stolzenberg-Solomon, Nutritional Epidemiology Branch, Division of Cancer Epidemiology and Genetics, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda MD 6120 Executive Blvd. MSC 7026, Rockville, MD 20852-7026, USA; E-mail: rs221z@nih.gov

some cancers (prostate, breast, colon) in Western populations [6] and could possibly be associated with pancreatic cancer considering its association with diabetes mellitus. Body mass index (BMI), a measure of obesity and predictor for type 2 diabetes, has been associated with pancreatic cancer [7–16], although inconsistently. Other studies have shown both positive and inverse associations between height and pancreatic cancer [8, 15, 17–19]. The purpose of this study is to examine the association between medical conditions, characteristics of the metabolic syndrome associated with insulin resistance, anthropometric measures, and physical activity with pancreatic cancer in a prospective cohort of male smokers.

Materials and methods

The Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention (ATBC) Study was a placebo-controlled, doubleblind, 2 × 2 factorial design, primary prevention trial that tested the hypothesis of whether α -tocopherol or β carotene reduced the incidence of lung cancer in male smokers [20]. Between 1985 and 1988, 29,133 eligible men, aged 50-69 years, in southwestern Finland, who smoked at least five cigarettes per day, were randomized to receive supplements (α -tocopherol 50 mg/day, β carotene 20 mg/day, or both) or placebo. Exclusion criteria from the study included a history of malignancy other than nonmelanoma cancer of the skin or carcinoma in situ, severe angina on exertion, chronic renal insufficiency, liver cirrhosis, chronic alcoholism, receiving anticoagulant therapy, other medical problems which might limit long-term participation, or current use of supplements containing vitamin E (>20 mg/day), vitamin A (>20,000 IU/day), or β -carotene (>6 mg/ day). The trial ended on 30 April 1993 and follow-up continued after randomization for the present study through November 1997 or until death, representing follow-up for up to 13 years (median 10.2 years). The study was approved by the institutional review boards of both the US National Cancer Institute and the National Public Health Institute in Finland, and all study participants provided written informed consent prior to the study's initiation. Details of the study rationale, design, and methods have been previously described [20].

Baseline characteristics, smoking and dietary factors

At their baseline visit the study participants completed questionnaires on general background characteristics including self-reported medical, smoking, and dietary

history, and had a venupuncture for blood after fasting 12 hours, from which serum total and HDL cholesterol were determined. Trained study staff using standard methods measured height, weight, and blood pressure. Blood pressure was measured in the right arm with a mercury sphygmomanometer and the lower of two measurements taken at least one minute apart was recorded. Body mass index was calculated from measured height and weight (kg/cm²). Diet was assessed with a self-administered dietary history questionnaire, designed and validated specifically for the ATBC study, which determined the frequency of consumption and usual portion size of over 200 food items during the past year, using a color picture booklet as a guide for portion size [20]. Occupational activity was assessed by asking how much exercise and physical burden was experienced at work during the past year with examples such as: (i) "not working", (ii) sedentary or "mainly sitting (i.e. watchmaker, radio mechanic, office work at desk)", (iii) light or "walking quite a lot, but not lifting or carrying (i.e. foreman, shop assistant, light industrial work, office work where one has to move)", (iv) moderate or "walk and lift a lot and often climb stairs or go up-hill (i.e. carpenter, tending cattle, work in engine shop, heavy industrial work)", and (v) heavy physical work or "lift and carry heavy things, dig, shovel, or cut, etc. (forestry work, heavy farm work, heavy building and industrial work)". Leisure-time activity was assessed by asking the average activity during the past year with examples such as: (i) sedentary or "reading, watching television, listening to radio, going to movies", (ii) moderate or "walking, fishing, hunting, gardening regularly", and (iii) heavy or "exercising to keep fit such as running, jogging, skiing, gymnastics, swimming, ball games, etc. fairly regularly". For ten subjects with incomplete data on years smoked, we estimated years smoked by subtracting the subjects' age when they started smoking from their age at randomization.

Case ascertainment

Cases were ascertained from the Finnish Cancer Registry, which provides almost 100% case ascertainment in Finland [21, 22]. Two study physicians independently reviewed relevant medical records for reported incident pancreatic cancer cases [23]. Only cases confirmed by the study physicians as incident primary malignant neoplasm of the exocrine pancreas (ICD9-157) [24] were used for the present analysis. Eighty percent of these confirmed cases had histopathologic diagnosis assigned centrally by the study pathologists after examining pathology and cytology specimens [23]. As their etiology may be different from the exocrine tumors, islet cell

carcinomas (ICD9-157.4) [24] were excluded. There were 174 cases of confirmed exocrine pancreatic cancer of which 172 had complete blood pressure, height, weight, HDL and total cholesterol, and physical activity data at baseline.

Statistical analysis

Follow-up time for each participant was calculated from the date of randomization until diagnosis of pancreatic cancer, death, or November 1997, totaling 277,566 person-years of observation. Only those with complete baseline medical history, measured blood pressure, height, weight, HDL and total cholesterol, and physical activity data (n = 29,048) were included in the analyses. Variables examined for association with pancreatic cancer included self-reported medical history of gallstones, pancreatitis, peptic ulcer disease, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, coronary heart disease, allergic skin lesions, and bronchial asthma; serum total and HDL cholesterol; measured systolic and diastolic blood pressure; height, weight, and body mass index; and occupational and leisure activity. The variables were analyzed as continuous and categorical variables, with the latter based on the distribution in the cohort or commonly used cut-points (i.e. total and HDL cholesterol, high blood pressure). Trends across categories were tested using a calculated score variable and based on the median values of each category for the continuous variables. We defined the following based on current recommendations from the United States National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute [25, 26]: measured high blood pressure as systolic ≥140 mmHg or diastolic ≥90 mmHg, high serum cholesterol as ≥5.18 mmol/L (≥200 mg/dl), and low serum HDL cholesterol as $\leq 1.04 \text{ mmol/L}$ ($\leq 40 \text{ mg/dl}$). Because the proportion of heavy laborers (six cases, 9.2% of the population) and heavy leisure activity (nine cases, 6% of the population) were low, heavy labor was combined with the moderate occupational work activity group and the moderate and heavy leisure activity variables collapsed together to provide more stable risk estimates (Table 4). For assessing the combined effects of occupational and leisure activity, the two variables were cross-tabulated.

The distribution of the cases was compared to the noncases using Wilcoxon rank sum, chi-square, and Fisher exact tests, for continuous and categorical variables, respectively. Hazards ratios (HR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI) were determined using proportional hazards models. Potential confounders were added to individual models in a stepwise fashion and were considered confounders if they were associated with both the disease and the risk factor ($p \le 0.20$) and changed the risk estimate ≥10%. Variables examined as potential confounders included age at randomization, smoking habits (years smoked, cigarettes smoked per day, pack-years); energy intake; energy-adjusted dietary folate, saturated fat, and carbohydrate intake; height, weight, and BMI; measured high blood pressure; history of diabetes mellitus and chronic bronchitis; occupational and leisure activity; and education. The dietary variables used to examine confounding were energy adjusted using the residual method described by Willett and Stampfer [27]. The analysis was initially restricted to those with complete dietary data (27,035 cohort subjects and 162 cases) to evaluate the dietary variables as potential confounders; however, the addition of these variables to models did not alter risk estimates, so the restriction was relaxed. Intervention and education were not included in models because neither was associated with pancreatic cancer. All multivariable models were adjusted for age at randomization, years smoked, cigarettes smoked per day, self-reported history of diabetes and bronchial asthma, occupational activity, and measured high blood pressure. The assumption of constant risk for proportional hazards models was tested with a time interaction term and lag analysis that excluded the first five years of observation. Effect modification between the anthropometric measures and energy, physical activity, history of diabetes mellitus, and smoking was tested through crossproduct terms in the multivariable models and estimates of stratified HR. The combined effect of occupational and leisure activity was also examined. All statistical analysis was performed using Statistical Analysis Systems (SAS, Inc., Cary, North Carolina) software and statistical tests were two-tailed.

Results

Cases subjects were older, had lower energy intake, had smoked longer, were more likely to have a history of bronchial asthma or diabetes mellitus, to have high blood pressure as measured at baseline, and tended to be either non-working or have lower levels of occupational activity (Table 1).

Among self-reported health characteristics, histories of bronchial asthma and diabetes mellitus were significantly associated with pancreatic cancer in both crude and adjusted models (Table 2). Measured high blood pressure was also positively associated with the disease. Significant excess risk for preexisting bronchial asthma, diabetes, and measured high blood pressure was observed when cases diagnosed less than five years from baseline were excluded from the analysis (based on 98 cases, multivariate adjusted: bronchial asthma

Table 1. Baseline characteristics of pancreatic cancer case and non-case subjects, Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention Cohort (1985)

Characteristics	Medians (inter-quartile ranges) or proportions				
	Case subjects Non-case subjects $(n = 172)$ $(n = 28,876)$		<i>p</i> -Value ^a		
Age, years	58 (55–62)	57 (53–61)	0.0001		
Years smoked	40 (34–43)	36 (31–42)	0.002		
Cigarettes per day	20 (15–25)	20 (15–25)	0.54		
Pack-years	39 (26.5–50)	35 (24–46)	0.05		
Energy intake, kcal/day	2609 (2204–3032)	2722 (2255–3263)	0.03		
Height, cm	173 (169–179)	174 (169–178)	0.52		
Weight, kg	79.1 (70.1–87.0)	78.3 (70.5–86.9)	0.93		
Body mass index ^b	25.5 (23.7–28.0)	26.0 (23.7–28.5)	0.46		
Self-reported health history					
Gallstones	5.2%	5.6%	0.86		
Pancreatitis	2.3%	1.4%	0.32		
Peptic ulcer disease	15.7%	17.5%	0.53		
Allergic skin lesions	4.7%	7.4%	0.17		
Bronchial asthma	6.4%	3.1%	0.01		
Diabetes mellitus ^b	8.1%	4.2%	0.01		
Hypertension ^b	14.5%	19.0%	0.14		
Coronary heart disease	7.6%	7.5%	0.99		
Clinical measurements					
Blood pressure, high ^{b,c}	69.8%	62.0%	0.04		
Systolic blood pressure, mmHg ^b	142 (130–154)	140 (128–154)	0.75		
Diastolic blood pressure, mmHg ^b	89 (80–94)	88 (80–94)	0.12		
Total cholesterol, mmol/l ^{b,d}	6.25 (5.42–7.05)	6.15 (5.44–6.94)	0.55		
HDL cholesterol, mmol/l ^{b,e}	1.14 (0.96–1.36)	1.14 (0.97–1.37)	0.85		
Physical activity					
Occupational					
Sedentary (desk work)	14.5%	13.7%			
Light activity (walking)	14.5%	18.2%			
Moderate (walking and lifting)	14.5%	16.5%			
Heavy activity (heavy labor)	3.5%	9.2%			
Non-working	53.0%	42.2%	0.01		
Leisure					
Sedentary (read, watch TV, go to movies)	44.8%	41.8%			
Moderate (walk, fish, hunt, gardening)	50.0%	52.2%			
Heavy (exercise to keep fit)	5.2%	6.0%	0.71		

^a p-Value for Wilcoxon rank sum for continuous data, chi-square for categorical, and Fisher's exact test for pancreatitis.

HR = 2.68, 95% CI 1.24–5.81, diabetes mellitus HR = 2.23, 95% CI 1.08–4.60, and measured high blood pressure HR = 1.56, 95% CI 1.01–2.42). Preexisting diabetes continued to be significantly associated with pancreatic cancer even after the exclusion of cases developing within 8 years of baseline (n = 48 cases: HR = 3.09, 95% CI 1.22–7.82), while bronchial asthma and measured high blood pressure risk estimates were attenuated. The other self-reported health-related

characteristics were not associated with pancreatic cancer.

No association was observed with pancreatic cancer and weight, height, BMI, diastolic blood pressure, and total and HDL cholesterol (Table 3) and the lack of association remained when the cases that occurred during the first five years of follow-up were excluded (based on 98 cases, multivariate, fifth compared to first quintile: weight, additional adjusted for height, HR =

b Characteristic of the metabolic syndrome.

^c Systolic ≥140 mmHg or diastolic ≥90 mmHg.

^d Conversion to mg/dl: cases, total cholesterol 241 (209–272) and non-cases, total cholesterol 237 (210–268); proportion with high total cholesterol (>5.18 mmol/L or 200 mg/dl) 80% cases and 82% non-cases.

^e Conversion to mg/dl: cases, HDL cholesterol 44 (37–54) and non-cases, HDL cholesterol 44 (37–53); proportion with low HDL cholesterol ≤1.04 mmol/L or ≤40 mg/dl, 34% cases and 35% non-cases.

Table 2. Adjusted hazard ratios and 95% confidence intervals for pancreatic cancer according to health history, Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention Cohort, randomization through November, 1997

Characteristic	Cases, n	Person-years	Age-adjusted model: HR (95% CI)	Multivariate-adjusted model ^a : HR (95% CI)
Self-reported health history				
Gallstones				
No	163	262,176	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)
Yes	9	15,389	0.88 (0.45–1.71)	0.84 (0.43–1.65)
Pancreatitis				
No	168	273,767	1.00	1.00
Yes	4	3,799	1.81 (0.67–4.89)	1.50 (0.55-4.07)
Peptic ulcer disease				
No	145	229,521	1.00	1.00
Yes	27	48,045	0.85 (0.56–1.28)	0.85 (0.56–1.28)
Allergic skin lesions				
No	164	257,114	1.00	1.00
Yes	8	20,451	0.63 (0.31–1.28)	0.59 (0.29–1.20)
Bronchial asthma				
No	161	269,775	1.00	1.00
Yes	11	7,790	2.23 (1.21–4.11)	2.16 (1.17–3.98)
Diabetes mellitus ^b				
No	158	266,896	1.00	1.00
Yes	14	10,669	2.17 (1.26–3.76)	2.02 (1.17–3.50)
Hypertension ^b				
No	147	226,987	1.00	1.00
Yes	25	50,579	0.77 (0.50–1.18)	0.70 (0.46–1.09)
Coronary heart disease				
No	159	258,528	1.00	1.00
Yes	13	19,037	0.99 (0.56–1.74)	0.91 (0.51–1.61)
Clinical measurements				
Blood pressure, high ^{b,c}				
No	52	107,805	1.00	1.00
Yes	120	169,761	1.38 (1.00–1.92)	1.36 (0.98–1.89)
Total cholesterol, high ^{b,d}		<i>'</i>	` '	,
No	34	47,465	1.00	1.00
Yes	138	230,101	0.85 (0.59-1.24)	0.88 (0.60-1.28)
HDL cholesterol, lowbb,e				
No	113	181,116	1.00	1.00
Yes	59	96,449	0.98 (0.72–1.35)	0.94 (0.68–1.29)

^a All models adjusted for age, years smoked, total number of cigarettes smoked per day, self-reported history of diabetes and bronchial asthma, occupational activity, measured high blood pressure.

0.73, 95% CI 0.36–1.49, p-trend = 0.44; height HR = 1.67, 95% CI 0.88–3.18, p-trend = 0.10; BMI HR = 0.90, 95% CI 0.45–1.77, p-trend = 0.30; diastolic blood pressure HR = 0.96, 95% CI 0.51–1.81, p-trend = 0.78; total cholesterol HR = 1.02, 95% CI 0.56–1.86, p-trend = 0.61; and HDL cholesterol HR = 0.97, 95% CI 0.53–1.76, p-trend = 0.99). There was also a suggestion of an increasing trend for pancreatic cancer with greater systolic blood pressure up to the fourth quintile with the risk attenuated at above 157 mmHg (Table 3), and the same risk pattern re-

mained with the 5-year lag analysis (compared to first quintile, fourth quintile HR = 2.57, 95% CI 1.32–5.00).

There were non-significant inverse associations between greater occupational and leisure activity and pancreatic cancer (Table 4). All risk estimates were proportional over time and the inverse association with greater occupational activity remained the same after the exclusion of the cases prior to the first 5 years (n = 98 cases; multivariable adjusted, compared to sedentary, moderate HR = 0.71, 95% CI 0.36-1.40, heavy

^b Characteristic of the metabolic syndrome.

^c Measured high blood pressure defined as systolic ≥140 mmHg or diastolic ≥90 mmHg.

d High total cholesterol defined as ≥5.18 mmol/L (≥200 mg/dl).

^e Low HDL cholesterol defined as ≤1.04 mmol/L (≤40 mg/dl).

Table 3. Adjusted hazards ratios and 95% confidence intervals for pancreatic cancer according to anthropometric and biologic measure quintiles, Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention Cohort, randomization through November 1997

Characteristic	Hazards ratios (95% confidence inte	ence intervals) p-Trend			
	1 (reference)	2	3	4	5	
Height, cm Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^a	≤168 37 54,558 1.00 1.00	>168 and ≤171 22 47,133 0.72 (0.43–1.22) 0.72 (0.43–1.22)	>171 and ≤175 45 70,641 1.00 (0.65–1.55) 1.01 (0.65–1.56)	>175 and ≤178 23 45,330 0.82 (0.49–1.39) 0.82 (0.49–1.39)	> 178 45 59,904 1.28 (0.83–1.98) 1.28 (0.82–1.98)	0.21 0.22
Weight, kg ^b Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^{a,c}	≤68.5 37 54,552 1.00 1.00	>68.5 and ≤ 75.2 29 55,428 0.80 (0.50–1.32) 0.77 (0.47–1.26)	>75.2 and ≤81.3 32 56,166 0.89 (0.56–1.44) 0.80 (0.49–1.30)	>81.3 and ≤89.2 42 56,070 1.20 (0.77–1.87) 1.01 (0.63–1.62)	>89.2 32 55,349 0.97 (0.60–1.56) 0.73 (0.42–1.23)	0.62 0.46
BMI, kg/m ² b Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^a Multivariate-adjusted ^{ad}	<pre>≤23.1 34 54,721 1.00 1.00 0.85 (0.54–1.34)</pre>	>23.1 and ≤25.1 40 56,128 1.18 (0.75–1.87) 1.18 (0.74–1.86) 1.00 (reference)	>25.1 and ≤26.9 40 56,155 1.19 (0.75–1.88) 1.15 (0.72–1.81) 0.97 (0.63–1.51)	>26.9 and ≤29.2 24 56,037 0.72 (0.43–1.22) 0.67 (0.39–1.13) 0.57 (0.34–0.94)	>29.2 34 54,525 1.07 (0.67–1.73) 0.91 (0.56–1.48) 0.77 (0.48–1.23)	0.67 0.24
Systolic blood pressure, mmHg ^b Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^a	<125 22 55,428 1.00 1.00	≥125 and <135 33 56,569 1.42 (0.83–2.44) 1.41 (0.82–2.42)	≥135 and <144 39 59,316 1.55 (0.92–2.62) 1.54 (0.91–2.60)	≥144 and <158 52 56,052 2.10 (1.27–3.47) 2.06 (1.25–3.41)	≥158 26 50,201 1.11 (0.62–1.97) 1.07 (0.60–1.90)	0.52 0.62
Diastolic, blood pressure mmHg ^b Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^a	<78 36 55,680 1.00 1.00	≥78 and <84 33 59,307 0.89 (0.55–1.42) 0.90 (0.56–1.44)	≥84 and <89 17 40,169 0.69 (0.39–1.22) 0.68 (0.39–1.21)	≥89 and <96 56 70,391 1.29 (0.85–1.97) 1.30 (0.85–1.97)	≥96 30 52,018 0.95 (0.59–1.55) 0.95 (0.59–1.55)	0.65 0.68
Total cholesterol, mg/dl ^b Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^a	<203 37 53,990 1.00 1.00	≥203 and <227 28 55,447 0.75 (0.46–1.22) 0.76 (0.47–1.25)	≥227 and <249 31 56,065 0.83 (0.51–1.33) 0.85 (0.53–1.37)	≥249 and <276 35 55,621 0.93 (0.59–1.48) 0.96 (0.61–1.52)	>276 41 56,442 1.09 (0.70–1.70) 1.13 (0.72–1.76)	0.44 0.36
HDL cholesterol, mg/dl ^b Cases, n Person-years Age-adjusted Multivariate-adjusted ^a	<36 39 54,586 1.00 1.00	≥36 and <41.7 24 55,707 0.60 (0.36–1.00) 0.63 (0.38–1.05)	≥41.7 and <47.1 49 55,961 1.21 (0.79–1.84) 1.30 (0.85–1.98)	≥47.1 and <55.2 21 56,576 0.52 (0.30–0.88) 0.56 (0.33–0.96)	>55.2 39 54,736 0.99 (0.64–1.54) 1.05 (0.67–1.65)	0.96 0.83

^a All models adjusted for age, years smoked, total number of cigarettes smoked per day, self-reported history of diabetes and bronchial asthma, occupational activity, measured high blood pressure.

 $\mathrm{HR} = 0.63$, 95% CI 0.33–1.22, p-trend = 0.19). For activity categories not collapsed, a significant protective association was observed for the heavy labor alone (compared to sedentary, multivariate adjusted: walking $\mathrm{HR} = 0.78$, 95% CI 0.45–1.35; walking with lifting $\mathrm{HR} = 0.87$, 95% CI 0.50–1.52; heavy labor $\mathrm{HR} = 0.27$, 95% CI 0.15–0.89; p-trend = 0.07; non-workers

 $\rm HR=0.97,~95\%~CI~0.60-1.57)$ and no association observed for leisure activity (compared to sedentary, multivariate adjusted: walking $\rm HR=0.90,95\%~CI~0.66-1.23;$ exercise $\rm HR=0.86,~95\%~CI~0.43-1.72,~p$ -trend=0.48). Compared to those with both sedentary occupational and leisure activity (Table 4), all levels of activity greater than sedentary showed protective associations. Inverse but

^b Characteristic of the metabolic syndrome.

^c Additionally adjusted for height.

^d Alternate reference category.

Table 4. Adjusted hazards ratios (HR) and 95% confidence interval (CI) for pancreatic cancer of occupational and leisure time physical activity, Alpha-Tocopherol, Beta-Carotene Cancer Prevention Cohort, randomization through November, 1997^a

Work activity		Leisure activity		p-Trend
		Sedentary	Moderate/heavy	
	77/113,697 1.00 (reference)		95/163,869 0.88 (0.65–1.20)	0.43
Cases, n/person-years	25/40,087	18/18,027	7/22,059	0.02
Sedentary, HR (95% CI)	1.00 (reference)	1.00 (reference)	0.34 (0.14–0.81)	
Cases, n/person-years	25/53,391	10/20,222	15/33,169	0.92
Light, HR (95% CI)	0.77 (0.45–1.35)	0.51 (0.23–1.10)	0.50 (0.25–0.99)	
Cases, n/person-years	31/74,026	15/32,980	16/41,046	0.87
Moderate/heavy, HR (95% CI)	0.69 (0.41–1.17)	0.42 (0.22–0.93)	0.42 (0.22–0.83)	
p-Trend	0.20	0.04	0.68	
Cases, n/person-years	91/110,062	34/42,468	57/67,594	0.61
Not work, HR (95% CI)	0.98 (0.60–1.58)	0.59 (0.32–1.08)	0.66 (0.37–1.16)	

^a All models adjusted for age, years smoked, total number of cigarettes smoked per day, self-reported history of diabetes and bronchial asthma, and measured high blood pressure.

non-significant associations were also observed for nonworkers in both leisure activity strata.

There were no significant interactions between the anthropometric measures and energy, smoking habits, physical activity, or history of diabetes mellitus, with the exception of height and energy such that compared to those with low energy intake (≤2419 kcal/day) and stature (≤170 cm), those who were (>176 cm) and had low energy intake had a significant increased risk of pancreatic cancer (multivariate adjusted: HR = 2.19, 95% CI 1.28–3.74, p-interaction = 0.05) and height and cigarettes smoked per day such that, compared to those who smoked a low number of cigarettes per day (≤15 cigarettes/day) and had short stature (≤170 cm), those who were tall (>176 cm) and smoked a high number of cigarettes per day had a nonsignificant increased risk of pancreatic cancer (multivariate adjusted: HR = 2.18, 95% CI 0.93-5.13, p-interaction = 0.02).

Of all the covariates assessed, only age at randomization altered most risk estimates and height confounded the risk estimate for weight. All risk estimates for the factors examined were statistically proportional over time (p-value > 0.05).

Discussion

We observed a positive association for self-reported preexisting diabetes mellitus, which remained after excluding early cases. It has been difficult to disentangle whether diabetics are truly at elevated risk for pancreatic cancer or if the condition is related to subclinical pancreatic cancer. Pancreatic cancer can induce peripheral insulin resistance and diabetes [20, 28], which disappears after tumor resection [29]. Several other prospective studies have also shown positive associations between self-reported diabetes and pancreatic cancer [3, 4, 10, 14, 30, 31]. The association with diabetes often remained among those studies with long follow-up (i.e. >5 and >10 years) [3, 10, 32]; however, attenuation over time has also been observed [4, 30, 31]. As diabetes is under-diagnosed and self-reported diabetes likely under-represents its true prevalence, a recent cohort study with an average 25 years of follow-up found a significant doubling of risk (relative risk (RR) = 2.15, 95% CI 1.22–3.80, p-trend = 0.01) associated with elevated post-load plasma glucose levels [9]. Of interest, cigarette smoke appears to influence glucose and lipid levels, as well as the incidence of type 2 diabetes, independent of body composition [33–35]. Although the latency of pancreatic cancer is unknown, our findings and those of others suggest that diabetes and glucose intolerance predict pancreatic cancer over an extended period of time.

Weight and BMI, important risk factors for type 2 diabetes, have also been positively associated with pancreatic cancer, although not consistently [7, 8, 11, 19] and several prospective studies suggest that BMI may be associated with pancreatic cancer [9, 10, 12–15]. In a large case–control study conducted within a retrospective home maintenance organization cohort having 24 years of follow-up (average ~12 years), Friedman and Van den Eeden [10] found modest

positive associations for both weight and BMI with pancreatic cancer (per 5 kg weight increase: RR = 1.06, 95% CI 1.01-1.11 and BMI per unit increase: RR = 1.02, 95% CI 1.00–1.04). In the previously mentioned post-load plasma glucose study an elevated risk was observed for BMI with pancreatic cancer in men (lowest to highest quartile BMI: RR = 3.07, 95% CI 1.53–6.15, p-trend = 0.001) with no association among women (lowest to highest quartile BMI: RR = 0.75, 95% CI 0.32–1.95, p-trend = 0.95). A large cohort study of American Cancer Society volunteers showed weak but significant positive associations [14], and a pooled analysis of the Nurses Health and Health Professional Follow-up Study cohorts showed significant positive associations [15] for pancreatic cancer among both men and women with BMI $> 30 \text{ kg/m}^2$ compared to those with normal weight. BMI and weight were unrelated to pancreatic cancer in the present study of smokers. Smokers tend to have lower BMI and body weight than non-smokers [36, 37] even after controlling for dietary intake, physical activity, age, and education [38, 39], and nicotine is known to increase metabolic rate and energy expenditure both at rest and during activity [40]. Despite these facts the majority of our population was overweight (BMI $> 25 \text{ kg/m}^2$) with a distribution of BMI similar to other populations that have observed positive associations with pancreatic cancer [14, 15]. Smokers also tend to be less well nourished than non-smokers as a result of poor diets and the anti-nutrient effects of cigarette smoke [39, 41], although neither dietary intake nor smoking habits altered the lack of association that we observe with BMI. Considering the potential influence of smoking on body weight and nutritional status, effect modification by smoking status on the association of body weight and pancreatic cancer should be explored in populations that include non-smokers.

We observed a suggestion of a positive association with elevated measured blood pressure at baseline, particularly systolic blood pressure, although self-reported history of hypertension was not related to pancreatic cancer in the present analysis. One other prospective study observed associations with diastolic and systolic blood pressure of 9% and 5% per 10 mmHg, respectively [10]. Our observed attenuation of the association with systolic blood pressure in the highest quintile (≥158 mmHg) could possibly be explained by subsequent treatment for hypertension for subjects in this quintile during follow-up. It has been hypothesized that insulin resistance and obesity-related hyperinsulinemia may enhance sodium retention and stimulate the sympathetic nervous system, thereby contributing to hypertension [42]. Hyperinsulinemia in patients with insulinoma, however, is associated with

neither insulin resistance nor hypertension [43–47]. Further, evidence exists for a local renin–angiotensin system in the pancreas [48]; whether it is related to the observed association for blood pressure and pancreatic cancer is unknown. We did not observe associations with other clinical factors related to insulin resistance, such as obesity and low HDL cholesterol. In addition, we used blood pressure as measured at baseline and misclassification could occur, thus influencing risk estimates. Therefore, it is possible that the associations between blood pressure and pancreatic cancer in our study and that of Friedman and Van den Eeden [10] are due to chance.

A non-significant protective association was also observed for greater occupational and leisure physical activity, particularly among those employed at baseline, which was independent of smoking, BMI, and energy intake and became significant with occupational and leisure activity stratification, despite its relatively crude assessment. Our finding is also supported by a pooled prospective analysis of the Health Professionals Followup Study and the Nurses Health Study (n = 323 cases) that showed a statistically significant inverse association between moderate leisure activity (less than six metabolic equivalents) and pancreatic cancer risk (pooled multivariate-adjusted highest quintile compared to lowest: RR = 0.45, 95% CI 0.29-0.70, p-trend < 0.001) [15], as well as a population-based case-control study (n = 312 cases, n = 2919 controls) that observed a significant inverse association in the highest quartile of a composite moderate and strenuous physical activity index in men (multivariate-adjusted OR = 0.53, 95% CI 0.31-90, ptrend = 0.04) but not in women (multivariate-adjusted OR = 0.80, 95% CI 0.41-1.54, p-trend = 0.35) [16]. Other prospective cohort studies have not demonstrated a relationship between physical activity and pancreatic cancer [49, 50]. The only animal experiment to examine exercise and pancreatic cancer showed that, in azaserinetreated rats that were subsequently exercised, early-life physical activity suppressed, while later life exercise enhanced, the development of preneoplastic pancreatic acinar cell lesions compared to sedentary animals [51]. The mechanisms that explain our observed associations with physical activity and diabetes are independent of obesity and energy intake and could possibly be related to insulin; for example physical activity decreases fasting insulin and type 2 diabetes is associated with insulin resistance [52]. Insulin is a known mitogen for tumor growth [52].

Among other self-reported medical conditions only a history of bronchial asthma was associated with increased risk of pancreatic cancer. A similar association has been observed in a prospective study of World War II veterans with 29 years of follow-up [53]. Bronchial asthma may be a marker for cigarette dose; however, adjustment for smoking did not alter the risk estimates, and lung emphysema (multivariate-adjusted HR = 0.91, 95% CI 0.51-1.63) and chronic bronchitis (multivariateadjusted HR = 0.86, 95% CI 0.49-1.52), which may similarly be disease markers of cigarette exposure, were not associated with pancreatic cancer. The low prevalence of the medical conditions examined (e.g. pancreatitis) and the likelihood of misclassification of self-reported disease (e.g. peptic ulcers, gallstone disease, coronary heart disease, hypertension) could both attenuate power and risk estimates. For example, subjects who have Helicobacter pylori carriage are often asymptomatic without dyspeptic symptoms [54, 55] and hypertension is known to be under-diagnosed and suboptimally treated [56]. In addition, individuals who report these often-under-diagnosed diseases (e.g. peptic ulcers, gallstone disease, coronary heart disease, hypertension) may have unmeasured characteristics (e.g. healthier habits) that may explain the non-significant inverse association we observed between these conditions and pancreatic cancer.

In conclusion, our data suggest that diabetes mellitus and bronchial asthma predict subsequent risk of developing pancreatic cancer in male smokers, and that greater physical activity may reduce risk. There was a suggestion of a positive association with measured high blood pressure, and other self-reported illnesses, total and HDL cholesterol, height, weight, and body mass index were unrelated to the disease. A potential limitation to our study is that lack of exposure assessment during follow-up could contribute to misclassification and attenuated risk estimates; however, the fact that our risk estimates were proportional over time argues against this. Although some of our findings may not be generalizable to non-smoker populations, because smokers have a greater risk for pancreatic cancer, many of our findings confirm results from non-smoking populations [1, 4, 10, 14, 30, 31] and may provide clues to mechanisms. The strength of our study is its large prospective nature, which eliminates recall and reverse causation bias. Identifying potentially modifiable factors that may reduce the burden of pancreatic cancer has important public health implications, particularly in the high-risk smoker population.

Acknowledgement

This research is supported by the US Public Health Service contracts N01CN45165 and N01CN45035 from the National Cancer Institute.

References

- Anderson KE, Potter JD, Mack TM (1996) Pancreatic cancer. In: Schottenfeld D, Fraumeni JF, eds. Cancer Epidemiology and Prevention. New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 725–771.
- Fuchs CS, Colditz GA, Stampfer MJ, et al. (1996) A prospective study of cigarette smoking and the risk of pancreatic cancer. Arch Intern Med 156: 2255–2260.
- Fisher WE (2001) Diabetes: risk factor for the development of pancreatic cancer or manifestation of the disease? World J Surg 25: 503-508
- Calle EE, Murphy TK, Rodriguez C, Thun MJ, Heath CW, Jr (1998) Diabetes mellitus and pancreatic cancer mortality in a prospective cohort of United States adults. *Cancer Causes Control* 9: 403–410
- Silverman DT, Schiffman M, Everhart J, et al. (1999) Diabetes mellitus, other medical conditions and familial history of cancer as risk factors for pancreatic cancer. Br J Cancer 80: 1830–1837.
- Stoll BA (1999) Western nutrition and the insulin resistance syndrome: a link to breast cancer. Eur J Clin Nutr 53: 83–87.
- World Cancer Research Fund in association with the American Institute of Cancer Research. (1997) Food, Nutrition, and Cancer Prevention: a Global Prospective. Washington, DC: WCRC, pp. 176–197.
- Ji BT, Hatch MC, Chow WH, et al. (1996) Anthropometric and reproductive factors and the risk of pancreatic cancer: a case– control study in Shanghai, China. Int J Cancer 66: 432–437.
- Gapstur SM, Gann PH, Lowe W, Liu K, Colangelo L, Dyer A (2000) Abnormal glucose metabolism and pancreatic cancer mortality. *JAMA* 283: 2552–2558.
- Friedman GD, van den Eeden SK (1993) Risk factors for pancreatic cancer: an exploratory study. Int J Epidemiol 22: 30– 37
- Silverman DT, Swanson CA, Gridley G, et al. (1998) Dietary and nutritional factors and pancreatic cancer: a case–control study based on direct interviews. J Natl Cancer Inst 90: 1710–1719.
- Wolk A, Gridley G, Svensson M, et al. (2001) A prospective study of obesity and cancer risk (Sweden). Cancer Causes Control 12: 13–21.
- Moller H, Mellemgaard A, Lindvig K, Olsen JH (1994) Obesity and cancer risk: a Danish record-linkage study. Eur J Cancer 30A: 344–350.
- Coughlin SS, Calle EE, Patel AV, Thun MJ (2000) Predictors of pancreatic cancer mortality among a large cohort of United States adults. *Cancer Causes Control* 11: 915–923.
- Michaud DS, Giovannucci E, Willett WC, Colditz GA, Stampfer MJ, Fuchs CS (2001) Physical activity, obesity, height, and the risk of pancreatic cancer. *JAMA* 286: 921–929.
- Hanley AJ, Johnson KC, Villeneuve PJ, Mao Y (2001) Physical activity, anthropometric factors and risk of pancreatic cancer: results from the Canadian enhanced cancer surveillance system. *Int* J Cancer 94: 140–147.
- Bueno de Mesquita HB, Maisonneuve P, Moerman CJ, Walker AM (1992) Anthropometric and reproductive variables and exocrine carcinoma of the pancreas: a population-based case control study in The Netherlands. *Int J Cancer* 52: 24–29.
- Howe GR, Ghadirian P, Bueno de Mesquita HB, et al. (1992) A collaborative case–control study of nutrient intake and pancreatic cancer within the search programme. Int J Cancer 51: 365– 372
- Kalapothaki V, Tzonou A, Hsieh CC, Toupadaki N, Karakatsani A, Trichopoulos D (1993) Tobacco, ethanol, coffee, pancreatitis, diabetes mellitus, and cholelithiasis as risk factors for pancreatic carcinoma. *Cancer Causes Control* 4: 375–382.

- Permert J, Ihse I, Jorfeldt L, von Schenck H, Arnqvist HJ, Larsson J (1993) Pancreatic cancer is associated with impaired glucose metabolism. Eur J Surg 159: 101–107.
- Kyllonen LE, Teppo L, Lehtonen M (1987) Completeness and accuracy of registration of colorectal cancer in Finland. *Ann Chir Gynaecol* 76: 185–190.
- Pukkala E. (1992) Use of record linkage in small-area studies. In: Elliott P, Cuzick J, English D, Stern R, eds. Geographical and Environmental Epidemiology: methods for small-area studies. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 125–131.
- ATBC Cancer Prevention Study Group (1994) The alpha-tocopherol, beta-carotene lung cancer prevention study: design, methods, participant characteristics, and compliance. Ann Epidemiol 4: 1–10.
- 24. Physician ICD-9-CM. (1997) Salt Lake City, UT: Medicode, Inc.
- National Heart Lung Heart and Blood Institute (1995) Recommendations regarding public screening for measuring blood cholesterol. 95-3045. NIH publication.
- 26. National Heart Lung and Blood Institute (1997) The sixth report of the joint committee on prevention, detection, evaluation, and treatment of high blood pressure. 98-4080. NIH publication.
- Willett W, Stampfer MJ (1986) Total energy intake: implications for epidemiologic analyses. Am J Epidemiol 124: 17–27.
- Permert J, Larsson J, Westermark GT, et al. (1994) Islet amyloid polypeptide in patients with pancreatic cancer and diabetes. N Engl J Med 330: 313–318.
- Permert J, Ihse I, Jorfeldt L, von Schenck H, Arnquist HJ, Larsson J (1993) Improved glucose metabolism after subtotal pancreatectomy for pancreatic cancer. *Br J Surg* 80: 1047–1050.
- Wideroff L, Gridley G, Mellemkjaer L, et al. (1997) Cancer incidence in a population-based cohort of patients hospitalized with diabetes mellitus in Denmark. J Natl Cancer Inst 89: 1360–1365.
- Shibata A, Mack TM, Paganini-Hill A, Ross RK, Henderson BE (1994) A prospective study of pancreatic cancer in the elderly. *Int J Cancer* 58: 46–49.
- Chow WH, Gridley G, Nyren O, et al. (1995) Risk of pancreatic cancer following diabetes mellitus: a nationwide cohort study in Sweden. J Natl Cancer Inst 87: 930–931.
- Nakanishi N, Nakamura K, Matsuo Y, Suzuki K, Tatara K (2000) Cigarette smoking and risk for impaired fasting glucose and type 2 diabetes in middle-aged Japanese men. *Ann Intern Med* 133: 183– 191.
- Jensen EX, Fusch C, Jaeger P, Peheim E, Horber FF (1995) Impact of chronic cigarette smoking on body composition and fuel metabolism. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 80: 2181–2185.
- Rigotti NA, Pasternak RC (1996) Cigarette smoking and coronary heart disease: risks and management. Cardiol Clin 14: 51–68.
- Albanes D, Jones DY, Micozzi MS, Mattson ME (1987) Associations between smoking and body weight in the US population: analysis of NHANES II. Am J Public Health 77: 439–444.
- Ma J, Hampl JS, Betts NM (2000) Antioxidant intakes and smoking status: data from the continuing survey of food intakes by individuals 1994-1996. Am J Clin Nutr 71: 774–780.
- 38. Klesges RC, Klesges LM (1993) The relationship between body mass and cigarette smoking using a biochemical index of smoking exposure. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* **17**: 585–591.

- 39. Hampl JS, Betts NM (1999) Cigarette use during adolescence: effects on nutritional status. *Nutr Rev* 57: 215–221.
- Perkins KA, Epstein LH, Marks BL, Stiller RL, Jacob RG (1989) The effect of nicotine on energy expenditure during light physical activity. N Engl J Med 320: 898–903.
- 41. Karp R (1999) Malnutrition among children in the United States: the impact of poverty. In: Shils ME, Olson JA, Shike M, Ross CA, eds. *Modern Nutrition in Health and Disease*. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins, pp. 898–1001.
- Landsberg L (1996) Insulin sensitivity in the pathogenesis of hypertension and hypertensive complications. *Clin Exp Hypertens* 18: 337–346.
- O'Brien T, Young WF, Jr, Palumbo PJ, O'Brien PC, Service FJ (1993) Hypertension and dyslipidemia in patients with insulinoma. *Mayo Clin Proc* 68: 141–146.
- Sawicki PT, Baba T, Berger M, Starke A (1992) Normal blood pressure in patients with insulinoma despite hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance. J Am Soc Nephrol 3: S64–S68.
- Sawicki PT, Heinemann L, Starke A, Berger M (1992) Hyperinsulinaemia is not linked with blood pressure elevation in patients with insulinoma. *Diabetologia* 35: 649–652.
- Pontiroli AE, Alberetto M, Pozza G (1992) Patients with insulinoma show insulin resistance in the absence of arterial hypertension [letter]. *Diabetologia* 35: 294–295.
- 47. Tsutsu N, Nunoi K, Kodama T, Nomiyama R, Iwase M, Fujishima M (1990) Lack of association between blood pressure and insulin in patients with insulinoma. *J Hypertens* 8: 479–482.
- 48. Chappell MC, Diz DI, Gallagher PE (2001) The renin-angiotension system and the exocrine pancreas. *JOP* 2: 33–39.
- Schmitz KH, Johnson TW, Anderson KE, Folsom AR (2000) Physical activity and pancreatic cancer in the Iowa Women's Health Study. Physical Activity and Cancer Program and Abstract Book. 29 (abstract).
- Lee IM, Paffenbarger RS, Jr (1994) Physical activity and its relation to cancer risk: a prospective study of college alumni. *Med Sci Sports Exerc* 26: 831–837.
- Craven-Giles T, Tagliaferro AR, Ronan AM, Baumgartner KJ, Roebuck BD (1994) Dietary modulation of pancreatic carcinogenesis: calories and energy expenditure. Cancer Res 54: 1964s– 1988s.
- Giovannucci E (1995) Insulin and colon cancer. Cancer Causes Control 6: 164–179.
- Robinette CD, Fraumeni JF, Jr (1978) Asthma and subsequent mortality in World War II veterans. J Chron Dis 31: 619–624
- Parsonnet J, Blaser MJ, Perez-Perez GI, Hargrett-Bean N, Tauxe RV (1992) Symptoms and risk factors of *Helicobacter pylori* infection in a cohort of epidemiologists. *Gastroenterology* 102: 41– 46.
- Stolzenberg-Solomon RZ, Blaser MJ, Limburg PJ, et al. (2001) Helicobacter pylori seropositivity as a risk factor for pancreatic cancer. J Natl Cancer Inst 93: 937–941.
- 56. Trilling JS, Froom J (2000) The urgent need to improve hypertension care. *Arch Fam Med* **9**: 794–801.